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ABSTRACT

A study examined workers' access to benefits, the extent to which they valued those benefits, and an analysis of variation in work-family time conflict for union and nonunion households. The survey design involved interviews with 520 Ohio respondents who were currently employed or recently unemployed. Findings indicated that union respondents and their households were more favored in access to benefits than nonunion respondents and households. Workers valued benefits to varying degrees; they placed high value on such benefits as pensions, vacations, medical care and hospitalization, and lower value on the newer "family-friendly" benefits such as day care vouchers, family leaves, and cafeteria plans. In looking at the value of benefits, differences between union and nonunion respondents were largely nonexistent. Analysis of the ease with which respondents found time for activities suggested that characteristics of jobs, family configuration, and work arrangements within the home all played a role. Even with job characteristics, family characteristics, and home work arrangements controlled, women still reported greater difficulty in finding free time than men. (Four data tables are appended.) (YLB)

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Center for Labor Research

BENEFITS, UNIONS AND WORK–FAMILY TIME CONFLICT

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Department of Sociology
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WP-012
October, 1994

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BENEFITS, UNIONS AND WORK FAMILY TIME-CONFLICT

INTRODUCTION

Some of the most pressing issues facing our nation today revolve around the intersection of work and family, particularly those aspects of these institutions affected by the changing roles of women. It is well known that female labor force participation has increased rapidly since the 1960s, with particularly sharp increases among mothers, including mothers with young children.

Such changes prompt diverse concerns from scholars and political constituencies. Psychologists, for example, have debated the relative advantages and disadvantages of the non-maternal care associated with maternal employment for the development of children. Some worry that, particularly in the child's first year of life, non-maternal care may weaken maternal child attachment, with negative implications for social and cognitive outcomes in later childhood (Belsky, 1990), while others argue that it is the characteristics of such care that must be considered, and that non-maternal care actually facilitates the development of children otherwise at risk (Clark-Stewart 1982). Sociologists have focused on role shifts within households, and have argued that although the levels of women's household work have dropped, and the levels of men's household work have increased slightly, the gender gap in household work remains large. In addition, men assume very little of the responsibility for initiating the planning work in the home, thus leaving women with the burden of not only doing most of the actual work, but also taking most of the responsibility (Pleck 1983). Economists have focused on the impact of work-family policies on decisions of labor supply, and have wrestled with the implications of alternative policies for industrial competitiveness, in particular with the problem that smaller firms often cannot afford to provide

the types of benefits that would most alleviate work-family conflict (Ferber and O'Farrell 1991). Feminists and "pro-family" advocates frequently fall on opposite sides of the fence regarding whether mothers with young children should be working outside of the home, and in their proposed solutions regarding how to better support today's families.

What do we mean by work-family conflict? This issue is important because clarifying the nature of the problem provides a firm foundation from which to suggest policy alternatives. By work-family conflict we understand the condition where the family and employment situations make demands on family members' resources that are incompatible. One of the most relevant resources here is time, which explains the emphasis in the work family literature on alternatives that attempt to reduce the incompatibility of time demands across the two spheres. There are two possibilities. First, there may be conflict in terms of the total amount of time that each area of responsibility demands. Although jobs vary in the length of time required, those who anticipate "careers" as opposed to "jobs" are encouraged to make heavy investments in time during the early phases of their work, so as to enhance the chances of later success. Even after advancement, many careers continue to demand large time investments, and given that family responsibilities such as parenting are also time demanding, the time conflict becomes obvious. Even "jobs", however, can demand greater quantities of time than some parents can manage, especially if they have heavy parental responsibilities or must care for disabled/ill spouses or parents. This has led some women to "choose" part-time work, although debate continues regarding whether these choices are being forced in part by the disproportionately heavy demands of families and by changes in the United States economy that have encouraged growth in part-time jobs at the relative expense of

full time jobs (Ferber and O'Farrell 1991). Policies aimed at alleviating this type of time conflict include part-time work and job sharing.

Second, there may be conflict in the timing of activities necessary to perform both work and family roles. For example, people who must work from eight to five cannot supervise elementary age children after school. Many parents experience scheduling conflict when children become ill, or when parents need special care. Over the family's life cycle, scheduling conflict becomes acute when young women pursuing careers are heavily investing time in work during the years when they may wish to begin raising families. Policies suggested to alleviate some of this conflict include "flexitime," part-time work, or parental leaves to care for young children or ill family members. These two types of conflicts are not necessarily mutually exclusive, since part-time work may alleviate both forms of conflict, as may parental leaves, at least for the duration of the leave.

What has been unions' role relevant to the changes in work and family that have occurred in our society and the resulting debates regarding solutions to the time conflicts we have described? Freedman and Medoff (1984) have argued that the union record in providing benefits for workers has been stronger than its record in securing wage increases. The average benefits package as a percent of compensation grew from just over one percent in 1929 up to about sixteen percent today, with average levels of 28% in private industry (Ferber and O'Farrell 1991:89). Ferber and O'Farrell (1991:141-142) also document variation among unions in progressiveness on work and family issues, with the IBEW being one of the most progressive and the Amalgamated Transit Workers being one of the least. Such variation likely reflects respective unions' constituencies: those that are heavily female are more likely to have negotiated policies that are "family

friendly" while those with low female constituencies may focus their negotiations of benefits on those that support workers' retirements or health care. This variation mirrors findings among organizations such that those with heavy demands for female labor or strong patterns of growth adopt more progressive policies than organizations with predominantly male work forces or with sluggish demands for labor.

The pressure for reduction of work family conflict via differing or larger packages of benefits from the workplace comes at an unfortunate time in the history of the United States economic system. Most people agree that families need to be supported in their activities that contribute to the size and productivity of the future labor pool and to the welfare of citizens in general, and that support of elderly parents or an ill spouse inevitably falls at least partially on the immediate family. However, health care costs have been rising at a rate that far exceeds inflation, and firms are scrambling to adjust to this reality either by passing costs on to consumers, forcing workers to bear a bigger share of the economic burden for health care, by cutting benefits, or some combination of these strategies. Given that health care is also a key concern for families, the question arises regarding what "place" some of these newer, "family friendly" benefits might have in comparison with more traditional benefits such as health care and retirement. This question becomes particularly acute if the level of benefits is actually decreasing. The question also takes on additional importance when we recognize that there is strong "life cycle" association with the need for particular benefits. Workplace support for child care may be a critical concern for parents of pre-school age children, but after those families pass through that stage of the life cycle, this concern diminishes, as may

support for a workplace policy that addresses it. Older workers may value family leaves to care for their elderly parents, a concern that younger families will have less frequently, but be indifferent to maternity leaves that are critical to women bearing children. Workers who have yet to establish families may place a very low value on all of these potential benefits. This "life cycle boundedness" supports the wisdom of "cafeteria plans" that allow workers to choose benefits most relevant to them in view of family demands and benefits available to spouses from their employment. Concerns about cost escalation with such policies have hampered their adoption, however.

Despite the myriad of questions that these issues raise, there has been insufficient research directed to addressing even the most basic questions underlying understanding of work family conflict. In a major report published by the National Academy of Sciences, Ferber and O'Farrell (1991) provide a comprehensive summary of our knowledge of work and family policies. They conclude that our knowledge base is deficient, and that existing studies are frequently hampered by unrepresentative samples, limiting our ability to understand the full range of the work and family conflict families experience. In the concluding chapter, they outline eight areas where research is critically needed, including two of which I will address in this research.

First, they call for stronger descriptive data regarding the distribution of existing benefits, particularly for low-income workers. A central problem in developing this information has been the unrepresentativeness of samples that have been sought to understand what benefits workers have. Surveys of major corporations are inevitably biased toward the upper end of the occupational distribution, and also share the disadvantage of surveying workers in the most profitable organizations, those that

can most easily increase benefits by passing costs onto consumers. A clear problem, however, is that low income workers are in greatest need of workplace supports for families, since they have the least discretionary income with which to cushion work family conflict. Second, they call for greater understanding of the changing role of men both at home and at work. Although it is women's labor force participation that has changed so dramatically, men should retain significant responsibilities for families; instead of placing all of the burden on women to juggle the responsibilities of two demanding roles, we need to ask whether men's role requirements should be adjusted in order to lessen work family conflict.

With support from the Center for Labor Research at The Ohio State University, I designed The Ohio Survey of Union and Non-Union Workers to provide evidence on several of these issues. The study had three objectives: 1) to obtain a profile of benefits available to each worker in the survey; 2) to obtain a "revealed preference" for a set of worker benefits that includes both traditionally provided benefits and the newer, less frequently available "family friendly" benefits; 3) to survey current division of labor in the home and duration of time devoted to paid work, in order to provide evidence regarding current division of work and responsibility in the home within the context of time devoted to paid work. The data can also help determine whether existing benefits affect levels of job satisfaction, expressions of work family conflict, and satisfaction with union activities.

METHODS

The survey design aimed to interview 1000 Ohio respondents who were currently employed or recently unemployed, with half the sample being derived from the general population and half the

sample being derived from lists of union members provided via the Ohio AFL-CIO. The Polimetrics Laboratory at OSU performed the field work by conducting telephone interviews in the state of Ohio. They used two sampling frames. In the first, they used random digit dialing to obtain a representative sample of 503 Ohio households, with an additional screen to exclude households where no member was in the labor force. The second sampling frame was derived from AFL-CIO lists of union membership in the state of Ohio. These lists were obtained from AFL-CIO offices in Washington, D.C. who maintained and up-dated them in conjunction with COPE activities prior to elections every two years. This portion of the survey effort yielded 520 completed interviews and also excluded those who had withdrawn from the labor force, but for various reasons remained listed as union members. The completion rate for the survey was 58%, calculated by taking completions over a denominator including refusals, completions, partial completions and failure to complete an interview after six callbacks. This response rate did not differ across the two segments of the sample. Fieldwork was completed in winter and spring of 1992.

The interviews were approximately 20 minutes long and asked a core set of questions that the CLR intends to ask every year the survey is conducted, as well as questions relevant to the work and family issues outlined above. In many cases the core questions included those that are also vital to our addressing the important issues noted above, e.g., worker's demographic and socio-economic profile (occupation, industry, earnings, race, gender) and family status. These core questions also included location within Ohio and a direct measure of years of labor force experience. Although not all of these households included those that experience the most severe forms of work-family conflict I have noted, the

households in which such conflict is minimal provide a valuable basis of comparison against which we can further understand such conflict in families where this is a problem. The questionnaires used appropriate skip patterns to avoid asking irrelevant questions, e.g., questions regarding day care to households without children. They were also worded to accommodate the recently unemployed.

Table 1 gives the operationalizations of many of the key variables included in the data analysis. I supplement this table with selective comments regarding the measures. The first three measures report the degree of ease with which respondents can find time for activities in general and then for two subsets of these activities: for their children and for themselves. Thus, the first measure is a composite of the second two. Items included under children's activities include time to take children to health care appointments, to stay home with a sick child, and to go school events for their children. Items included under other activities include how easy it is to run errands, to go shopping, to visit neighbors and friends, and to be active in the community. Chronbach's alphas suggest that all three scales have very good levels of reliability.

The measure of job satisfaction was derived from a number of items taken from other surveys and involved such dimensions as satisfaction with earnings, working conditions, the chance to contribute to their organizations, the chance for advancement and challenge in their work. This is also a measure with very good reliability. The final four measures in the table tap the number of hours that the respondents and their spouses are spending on chores on work and non-work days respectively. These measures are be especially useful in understanding variation in the ease with which respondents can find time for activities outside of work.

Two other sets of measures are critical to this investigation. First, I asked respondents whether they were eligible to receive a number of benefits as part of their employment. Respondents were directed to answer affirmatively if they were eligible to receive each benefit, or something better. The benefits included a retirement pension after 30 years paying half the average of wages earned in the last three years with their firm; $50,000 in life insurance; two weeks paid vacation per year; flextime--the ability to set their own working hours around a core period of the day; six weeks paid family leave (to be used as maternity leave or to care for an ill family member); job guarantee after taking family leave; hospital benefits covering 80% of hospital charges for self and dependents; medical/surgical benefits covering 80% of doctors charges for self and dependents; firm subsidized day care/eldercare vouchers; 80% coverage for prescription drugs for self and family; dental benefits covering 80% of charges for self and family; similar levels of vision benefits; and a cafeteria plan for benefits, so workers could choose what they wanted over others. In each case respondents indicated not only whether they had access to this benefit but also whether their spouse did; questions regarding spouses were asked only when the spouses were employed.

Second, I asked respondents to indicate how much money per week they would be willing to pay to have that benefit if it were not provided as part of a benefits package connected with employment (see Dunn 1991 for additional description of this "revealed preference" method). Respondents were told that these questions were just hypothetical, but placing dollar figures on each benefit gives a good idea of how important each benefit is relative to others. They were instructed to consider each item separately and indicate the highest dollar amount that it alone

would be worth if they were to purchase it out of their current income. I used the same list of benefits as reported above.

FINDINGS

Table 2a gives basic descriptive data for all respondents in the sample. The means for the ease in finding time for various activities and the job satisfaction indices are zero because the measures are sums of Z scores that necessarily average to zero. Fifty nine percent of the sample belongs to a union--roughly 50 percent of these respondents come from the union sample and the balance come from the general sample of Ohio households. Households earn over $38,000 per year and respondents work an average of over 42 hours per week. Almost two thirds of the households contain a working spouse. Regarding family configuration, more than two thirds of the respondents are married; they have close to 2 children per household, one of which is younger than 19 years of age. In eighteen percent of the households they provide care for an adult. Respondents are disproportionately male, a function of the sampling frame that derived more than 50% of the respondents from a list of AFL-CIO union members. Educational level exceeds high school graduation, and the average age is close to 42 years. Only 8 percent of the sample is non-white. Respondents report spending more time doing chores on non-work than on work days, and report a similar pattern for their spouses, although the difference is much less pronounced.

Table 2b provides these same data broken down by whether the respondents were union or non-union members. Union and non-union members do not differ in the ease with which they can find time for various activities, in their levels of job satisfaction, in the extent to which their spouses are employed, in terms of the number of children under age nineteen, in terms of whether they

care for an adult in their household or in terms of the respondents time spent on chores on non-work days. We do find, however, that union members work fewer hours, are much less likely to be self-employed, and are less likely to have flextime than non-union members. Union members are more likely to be in households where other adults work, to be married and to have greater numbers of children; they are also older and report that they and their spouses do more chores on work days than non-union members, and that their spouses do more chores on non-work days. As noted above, the union respondents are less likely to be female. They are also less likely to be non-white, a finding that suggests that Ohio non-whites are less likely to enjoy the protections that union membership can provide than are whites in Ohio. These descriptive differences provide background for interpreting the findings on benefits and work-family conflict that we now consider.

Table 3 reports access to benefits for respondents and spouses in the two samples as well as data suggesting the extent to which respondents value the respective benefits I enumerated. The first columns of the table suggest that with a few exceptions, union members are more likely to have key benefits than are non union members. The exceptions are life insurance and flextime, where nonunion members have an advantage. The two groups do not differ in access to family leave and day care subsidies. Union advantage is particularly strong on pensions, hospitalization and medical coverage, dental vision and prescription coverage.

The second set of columns in the table suggests that if a respondent is a union member, his/her working spouse is less likely to have key benefits. The benefits for which this holds true include pension, life insurance, paid vacation, flextime, hospitalization, medical care, prescription coverage and cafeteria

plans. It appears that households are very dependent upon the benefits unions have negotiated for their workers, and that households may be making strategic decisions involving spouse job choice that are assuming the key benefits are already covered. Still, the third set of columns suggest that there is a fair degree of matching of benefits within households, where this matching process usually appears stronger for union as compared with non-union households. A positive, significant correlation suggests that if the respondent has the benefit, so does the spouse; similarly, if the respondent lacks the benefit, so does the spouse. There are a fair number of positive and significant correlations across the two samples, but they appear stronger for union than non-union households regarding access to pensions, life insurance, job guarantees after leaves, the overall number of benefits and the number of benefits that we describe as "family friendly" (i.e., day care, family leave, job guarantee, and cafeteria plan). The only benefit where the association between spouses appears stronger for non-union than union households is access to cafeteria plans. These findings suggest that processes of social selection are operating such that households with two earners are likely to have either good access to benefits from the two jobs, or rather poor access to these benefits, and that these relationship are stronger in union than in non-union households.

The final columns of this table suggest that union and non-union members differ little in terms of how they value benefits. The only two exceptions suggest that non-union respondents may be more likely to value life insurance and flextime than union respondents, but the differences, although significant, are not large. Attending to the dollar figures associated with each benefit for the union respondents, I find that they value hospitalization, medical coverage, pensions and vacations most

highly. Valued at about half those rates are the benefits of job guarantees after a leave and dental coverage, along with family leave. Somewhat less valued are benefits including life insurance, flextime, day care, prescriptions, vision coverage and cafeteria plans. These findings change little if we attend to the non-union respondents, although they may have a slight tendency to value the family friendly benefits more than the union respondents.

Additional analysis (not presented here) suggested that it was difficult to predict variation in the values the respondents attached to benefits. There was some indication that respondents valued the benefits that they already had, and tended to de-value the benefits to which they did not have access. More highly educated and higher income respondents tended to value benefits more, as did self-employed respondents. It might be that higher income respondents are more capable of paying for the benefits they want, and that self employed respondents are more aware of the costs of benefits since they may be involved in paying for them out of their own pockets, a condition we tried to simulate in this study with this question. Surprisingly, gender did not correlate with value attached to many of the benefits. More refined multivariate analyses may explain why some respondents value these benefits more than others.

Table 4a reports multiple regression analyses predicting variation in the ease with which respondents believe they can find time for various non-work activities; Tables 4b and 4c break this index down into two separate indices for ease in finding time for children and for themselves, respectively. Table 4a suggests that respondents who have flextime find it easier to find time for activities, as do respondents who spend more time on workdays doing chores and older workers. Factors that make it more

difficult to find time for activities include longer work hours, greater job satisfaction, larger numbers of children, being female and spending more time on non-work days doing chores. Preliminary analysis suggested non-significant relationships between other benefits and work-family time conflict. However, some data did suggest that the model presented here may vary by union-non-union status. Further analysis will be needed to uncover the source and reliability of these possible differences.

The inverse relationship between job satisfaction and how easy it is to find time for activities is, perhaps, counterintuitive. One might speculate that greater job satisfaction leads to longer working hours and thus less free time. However, given that we have controlled for work hours, this explanation is not tenable. There may be unmeasured aspects of job involvement that may make it more difficult for those highly involved workers to find time for outside activities. Testing this hypothesis would require data that is unavailable at the present time.

The model predicting ease in finding time for children suggests that the more time the respondent spends on chores on work days, the easier finding time for children will be. Factors that make it more difficult to find time for children include longer work hours, greater job satisfaction, increased time that respondent spends on chores on non-work days, and increased time that spouses spend on chores on work days. Findings in Table 4c, predicting ease in finding time for oneself, are similar in pattern to those in Table 4a. In both models the strongest predictors are work hours and job satisfaction, with being female, being older, and doing chores on non-work days as more moderate predictors.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has been concerned with workers access to benefits, the extent to which they value those benefits, and an analysis of variation in work-family time conflict for union and non-union households. We have found that union respondents and their households are more favored in access to benefits than non-union respondents and households. We have also found that workers value benefits to varying degrees; they place high value on benefits such as pensions, vacations, medical care and hospitalization, and lower value on the newer "family-friendly" benefits such as day care vouchers, family leaves, and cafeteria plans. Thus, there is no evidence that workers are clamoring for the newer "family friendly" benefits at the expense of more traditional benefits. Whether these preferences vary by stage of the life cycle is a question I address further below. In looking at the value of benefits, differences between union and non-union respondents are largely non-existent.

Analyzing the ease with which respondents find time for activities suggests that characteristics of jobs, of family configuration, of background and work arrangements within the home all play a role. Sheer amount of available time is a critical factor: the longer a respondent works, the more difficult finding non-work time becomes. Similarly, the greater the household burden, as indicated by number of children, the more difficult it is to find time. However, the ability to schedule paid employment and family work as they wish also make a difference. Workers who can arrange work hours around core hours of the day find it easier to find time for non-work activities. Those who shift chores from non-work to work days also have an easier time. Thus, factors that are both within and beyond workers' control make a difference in finding free time. Workers cannot initiate flextime plans in firms that are unwilling. They may, however, be in a better

position to rotate some home chores to work days in order to free up weekends and holidays. They may also exercise some control in their work hours.

More troubling are the relationships between ascribed characteristics and the ease in finding time for activities. Even with job characteristics, family characteristics and home work arrangements controlled, women still report greater difficulty in finding free time than men. Again, there may be factors that we have not measured that account for this relationship that merit further investigation. With similar controls, older people report greater ease in finding free time. Such life cycle effects also merit further investigation.

Additional questions that we can address with this data set include the relationship between access to benefits and occupational status, and the relationship between preferences for various benefits and the part of the life cycle that the respondent occupies. The former question is important to our understanding more about socioeconomic inequality, since the benefits we have studied are an important portion of the economic support systems for workers and their families, and they are not distributed equally across families. The latter question speaks more directly to the issue of life cycle boundedness of various benefits, and the implications of such boundedness for the tasks of union leaders as they try to negotiate packages to support their constituencies. Clearly, unions vary in the demographic make-ups of their members. We need to understand more about how such variations may affect workers' preferences for benefits. Given the centrality of workplace benefits to both supporting families and generating inequality, such inquiries should be high on our future research agenda.

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Table 1. Operationalization of Variables

Ease in Finding Time for Activities: a 21-item index tapping respondent reports of how easy it is to find time for activities involving both children and self. Alpha reliability = .89.

Ease in Finding Time for Children: an 8-item index tapping respondent reports of how easy it is to find time for activities involving children only. Alpha reliability = .76.

Ease in Finding Time for Self: a 12-item index tapping respondent reports of how easy it is to find time for activities involving self only. Alpha reliability = .85.

Union: a dummy variable coded 1 if respondent is a union member.

Income: the respondent's family's total annual income in 1991.

Hours: average hours per week worked.

Self-Employed: a dummy variable coded 1 if respondent is self-employed.

Job Satisfaction: a 13-item factor-based scale measuring the respondent's job satisfaction. Alpha reliability = .87.

Flextime: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent is eligible to receive the fringe benefit of setting their own working hours around a core period of the day.

Spouse Employed: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent's spouse is employed.

Other Adults Work: a dummy variable coded 1 if there are other adults 18 years or older in the household who work for pay.

Married: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent is married.

Number of Children: the respondent's number of children.

Table 1 continued. Operationalization of Variables

 # Children < 19: the respondent's number of children who are 18 years old or younger.

Cares for Adult: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent helps out or takes care of an elderly or disabled adult friend or relative.

Female: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent is female.

Education: the number of years of education the respondent has completed.

Age: the respondent's age in years.

Nonwhite: a dummy variable coded 1 if the respondent is not white.

Respondent Time for Chores on Work Days: the number of hours that the respondent spends on home chores on days that they are working.

Respondent Time for Chores on Non-Work Days: the number of hours that the respondent spends on home chores on days that they are not working.

Spouse Time for Chores on Work Days: the number of hours that the respondent's spouse spends on home chores on days that the respondent is working.

Spouse Time for Chores on Non-Work Days: the number of hours that the respondent's spouse spends on home chores on days that the respondent is not working.

Table 2a. Descriptives for Variables in the Analysis for the Entire Sample (N =1023).

Variable	Mean	Std Dev
Ease in Finding Time Indices		
Activities	.00	9.71
Children	.00	4.83
Self	.00	7.34
Work Characteristics		
Union	.59	.49
Income	38396.52	18819.40
Hours	42.59	8.93
Self-Employed	.06	.23
Job Satisfaction	.00	7.85
Flextime	.29	.46
Spouse Employed	.63	.48
Family Configuration		
Other Adults Work	.70	.46
Married	.68	.47
Number of Children	1.97	1.56
# Children < 19	.99	1.27
Cares for Adult	.18	.38
Background Characteristics		
Female	.35	.48
Education	13.31	2.38
Age	41.96	11.19
Nonwhite	.08	.27
Respondent Time for Chores		
Respondent Work Days	1.99	1.63
Respondent Nonwork Days	4.37	2.92
Spouse Time for Chores		
Respondent Work Days	3.63	3.17
Respondent Nonwork Days	4.09	3.07

Table 2b. Descriptives for Variables in the Analysis for Union Members (N =601) and Non-Union Members (N = 421).

	Union Members		Non-Union Members		
Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	
Ease in Finding Time Indices					
Activities	-.26	9.89	.36	9.46	
Children	-.09	4.89	.14	4.75	
Self	-.22	7.46	.31	7.18	
Work Characteristics					
Income	39134.95	16962.47	37324.12	21205.79	
Hours	42.15	7.37	43.28	10.69	*
Self-Employed	.01	.10	.12	.32	*
Job Satisfaction	1.63	7.79	-2.31	7.35	
Flextime	.17	.37	.47	.50	*
Spouse Employed	.63	.48	.64	.48	
Family Configuration					
Other Adults Work	.74	.44	.63	.48	*
Married	.74	.44	.58	.49	*
Number of Children	2.12	1.53	1.76	1.58	*
# Children < 19	1.01	1.26	.95	1.30	
Cares for Adult	.19	.39	.17	.37	
Background Characteristics					
Female	.25	.43	.49	.50	*
Education	12.81	2.13	14.03	2.54	*
Age	43.94	10.51	39.19	11.50	*
Nonwhite	.06	.24	.10	.29	*
Respondent Time for Chores					
Rsp. Work Days	2.10	1.81	1.83	1.32	*
Rsp. Nonwork Days	4.41	2.86	4.33	3.01	
Spouse Time for Chores					
Rsp. Work Days	3.91	3.38	3.13	2.67	*
Rsp. Nonwork Days	4.38	3.23	3.57	2.70	*

Note: * indicates that the oneway analysis of variance by union/non-union is significant at $p<.05$, two-tailed test.

Table 3. Oneway Analysis of Variance for Presence of Benefits for Respondent and Spouse and for Valuing of Benefits for Respondent by Union and Correlations between Respondent and Spouse Benefits (N = 1023).

	Presence of Benefit (Percent of sample)						Correlation with Corresponding Spouse Benefit		Values Benefit ($ figure R is willing to pay per week)		
	Respondent			R's Spouse					Respondent		
Benefit	Union	NonU	sig	R Un	R NonU	sig	Union	NonU	Union	NonU	sig
Pension	60.0	47.5	a	46.1	50.3	c	.44*	.24*	38.89	43.17	
Life Insurance	35.5	44.7	b	32.2	38.9	a	.52*	.31*	11.61	15.51	d
Vacation	80.0	75.7	d	67.4	71.6	c	.20*	.06	41.69	34.71	
Flextime	16.8	47.1	a	28.4	32.7	c	.26*	.33*	11.10	19.75	d
Leave	39.4	40.5		41.5	42.9		.32*	.31*	16.96	22.04	
Job Guarantee	68.3	63.2	d	63.0	65.8		.48*	.30*	19.60	22.65	
Hospitalization	94.6	75.6	a	66.2	70.3	c	.03	-.06	39.29	48.29	
Medical	92.2	75.8	a	62.6	68.4	b	.10	-.04	37.30	41.93	
Day Care	6.8	8.1		6.5	7.4		.39*	.39*	12.75	16.38	
Prescriptions	80.7	56.1	a	52.4	55.9	d	.16*	.13	14.73	19.42	
Dental	58.2	42.3	a	40.6	42.0		.29*	.32*	18.48	19.82	
Vision	46.6	26.5	a	29.1	31.4		.43*	.42*	11.41	13.48	
Cafeteria	26.6	34.1	b	21.2	25.1	c	.42*	.53*	12.91	15.51	
# of Benefits							.19*	.05			
# Family Benefits							.15*	.07			

Notes: a = p<.001, b = p<.01, c = p<.05, d = p<.10, two-tailed test.
a = p<.0005, b = p<.005, c = p<.025, d = p<.05, one-tailed test.
* = Significant at p<.05, two-tailed test.

Table 4a. Regression Coefficients for Work Characteristics, Family Configuration, Background Characteristics, Time for Chores, and Spouse Time for Chores on Ease in Finding Time for Activities (N = 1023).

Variable	Correl	B	Beta	sr^2
Work Characteristics				.10 ***
Union	-.03	.14	.01	
Income	.03	-.00	-.01	
Hours	-.15	-.20 ***	-.19	
Self-Employed	.08	2.00	.05	
Job Satisfaction	-.26	-.30 ***	-.24	
Flextime	.16	2.13 **	.10	
Spouse Employed	.01	-.56	-.02	
Family Configuration				.01
Other Adults Work	.04	.88	.02	
Married	.03	.97	.05	
Number of Children	-.01	-.49 *	-.08	
Cares for Adult	-.02	.23	.01	
Background Characteristics				.01 **
Female	-.06	-1.73 *	-.08	
Education	.00	-.12	-.03	
Age	.08	.10 **	.11	
Nonwhite	-.00	.30	.01	
Respondent Time for Chores				.02 ***
Rsp. Work Days	.03	.51 **	.03	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.15	-.57 ***	-.15	
Spouse Time for Chores				.00
Rsp. Work Days	-.08	-.31	-.08	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.04	.16	-.04	
Constant		8.09 **		
R Square		.16		
Adjusted R Square		.14		

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, two-tailed test.

Table 4b. Regression Coefficients for Work Characteristics, Family Configuration, Background Characteristics, Time for Chores, and Spouse Time for Chores on Ease in Finding Time for Children (N = 1023).

Variable	Correl	B	Beta	sr^2
Work Characteristics				.03 ***
Union	-.02	.15	.02	
Income	.03	-.00	-.01	
Hours	-.08	-.03 **	-.09	
Self-Employed	.05	.58	.04	
Job Satisfaction	-.15	-.06 ***	-.15	
Flextime	.08	.26	.04	
Spouse Employed	.05	-.02	-.00	
Family Configuration				.01
Other Adults Work	.04	.38	.03	
Married	.05	.43	.06	
Number of Children	-.04	-.14	-.07	
Cares for Adult	.01	.25	.03	
Background Characteristics				.00
Female	.02	.03	.00	
Education	.02	-.01	-.00	
Age	.03	.01	.04	
Nonwhite	-.02	-.25	-.02	
Respondent Time for Chores				.01 **
Rsp. Work Days	.05	.18 **	.09	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.07	-.10 *	-.09	
Spouse Time for Chores				.01
Rsp. Work Days	-.11	-.13 *	-.11	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.06	.04	.03	
Constant		.89		
R Square		.06		
Adjusted R Square		.04		

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, two-tailed test.

Table 4c. Regression Coefficients for Work Characteristics, Family Configuration, Background Characteristics, Time for Chores, and Spouse Time for Chores on Ease in Finding Time for Self (N = 1023).

Variable	Correl	B	Beta	sr^2
Work Characteristics				.11 ***
Union	-.04	-.15	-.01	
Income	.02	-.00	-.01	
Hours	-.15	-.16 ***	-.20	
Self-Employed	.07	.84	.03	
Job Satisfaction	-.26	-.23 ***	-.24	
Flextime	.16	1.73 **	.11	
Spouse Employed	-.01	-.51	-.03	
Family Configuration				.00
Other Adults Work	.04	.45	.01	
Married	.02	.42	.03	
Number of Children	-.00	-.32 *	-.07	
Cares for Adult	-.03	-.10	-.01	
Background Characteristics				.02 ***
Female	-.09	-1.87 ***	-.12	
Education	-.01	-.12	-.04	
Age	.09	.08 ***	.13	
Nonwhite	.01	.63	.02	
Respondent Time for Chores				.02 ***
Rsp. Work Days	.02	.33 *	.07	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.16	-.43 ***	-.17	
Spouse Time for Chores				.00
Rsp. Work Days	-.05	-.18	-.06	
Rsp. Nonwork Days	-.02	.13	.04	
Constant		6.90 **		
R Square		.17		
Adjusted R Square		.15		

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, two-tailed test.

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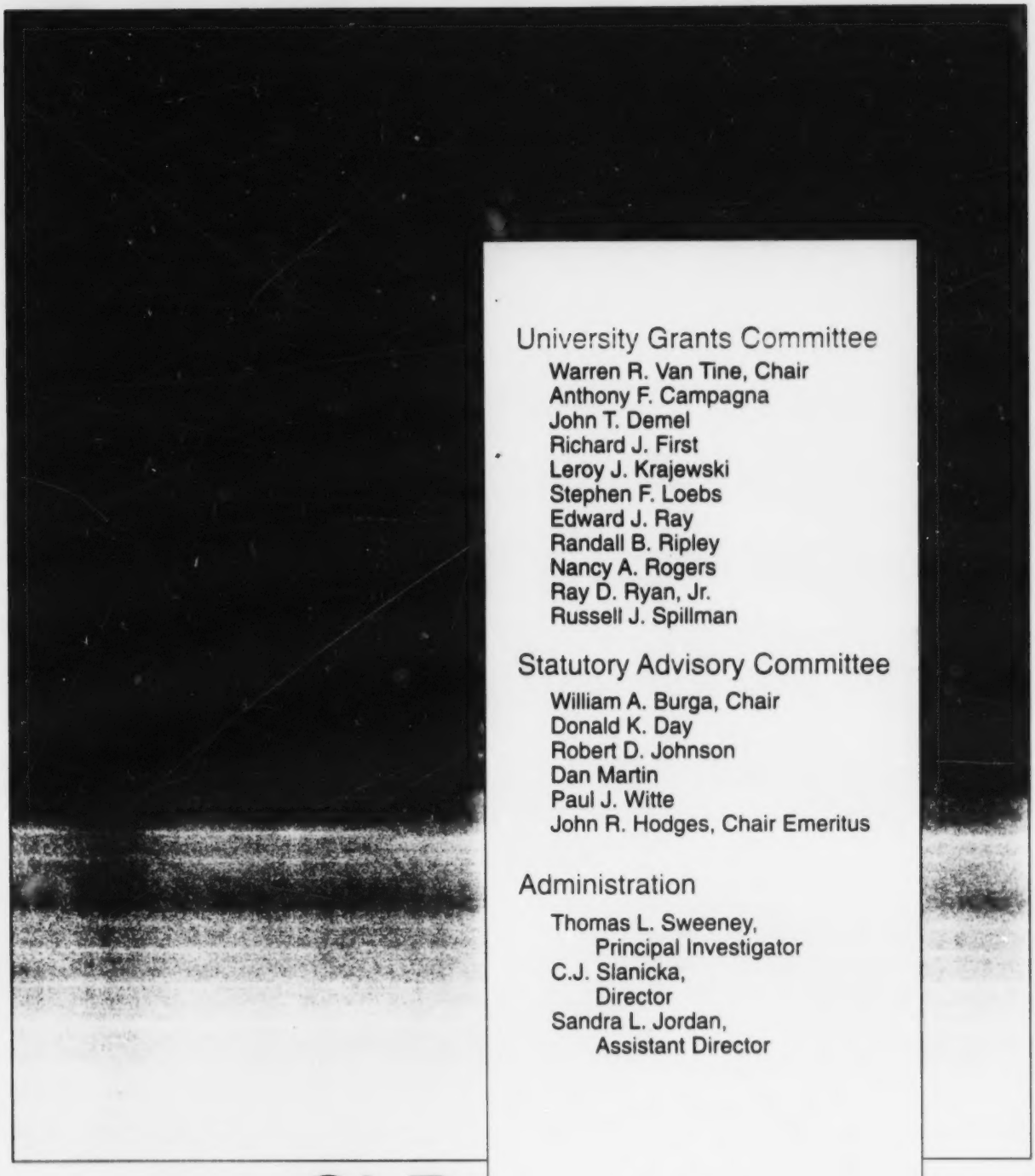

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